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IN-SERVICE TRAINING PERSPECTIVES

Educating Immigrants

Vocational Bias

Primary Schools and the Community

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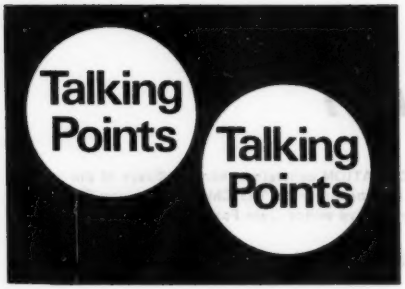

Only connect

If those who have dominion over lessons have themselves learned a lesson in recent years, it is about the need for improved communications. This comes from the strong feeling that all who are concerned with a child's development towards maturity require to be involved in a total system of support, guidance and instruction.

Last year the ILEA broke new ground by issuing a discussion document[1] to all in its service. It contributed a plea for looking at the system administered by the Authority in a fresh way with the particular aim of guarding against isolation and rigidity in its various component elements. The booklet analysed with refreshing frankness the failings of parents, teachers and administrators—'the unwilling and neglectful parent', the teachers 'resistant to any real participation by parents in school affairs', the administrators who help to impose 'limited and traditional rôles on individual institutions. When such a call goes out for a closer relationship between schools, parents, adult education and social services, the supreme significance of good communication is again emphasized, but are teachers effectively communicating with each other?

Most primary teachers work in comparatively small teams. Meetings with fellow members of their profession, including those who work as advisers, at courses and at teachers' centres may greatly help to break down isolation. A continuing relationship with a college of education with which in many cases they already have contacts may be helpful. In larger schools there must be few teachers who have not profited from the words of a colleague, not necessarily communicating solemn advice, but in the form of an anecdote, a confession of failure, a whoop of joy over success. But in the shape of formal, written communication how much do teachers profit from what is now available? To what degree and in what respects is educational writing significant?

It is notable that in 1973 a new primary educational journal was successfully launched. *Education 3 - 13* in its first two issues has offered much of value and is clearly edited with a sense of direction and purpose which promises more. It has enlisted well-known contributors writing up to form in most cases, and one head at least with the capacity vividly to realize the character of his school and able to make what he does, and his reasons for doing things that way, convincingly clear. It is editorial policy to concentrate on specific themes and to give attention to practical applications of current thought about methods, aims and rôles. The consolidation of this journal as an agency of communication will doubtless depend on whether contributors achieve the right wavelength and whether ideas are expressed with the freshness and clarity too seldom found in writing about education. So it is a bold step to include in the second issue a blunt contribution from the Deputy Editor of the *Times Educational Supplement.* This is merciless in its exposure of 'educanto', the pretentious, impersonal, hazy style often regarded as the language of advancement in the profession. An editor, it is here observed, faces all too frequently the job of translating out of 'educanto' into that clearer and more positive language of which the writer on education is often afraid.

From the recent literature of education one might sadly conclude that the

[1] BRIAULT, E. H. An education service for the whole community. London, 1973 (Inner London Education Authority).

devil has all the best strikers—Ivan Illich, the late Paul Goodman or a whole dazzling forward line such as the children who wrote the *School of Barbiana*. Orthodoxy seems badly in need of a new school of communicators capable of sounding a note to which younger teachers at least can respond.

Dim religious light?

Schools are required by Act of Parliament to set some time in the week aside for religious education; on the other hand, no teacher can be compelled to teach it. We in this country tend to justify such oddities in our social life and institutions by saying that, however illogical they may seem, they work. Often, of course, they do. But do our institutions always have that in-built flexibility that allows them to adapt to a rapidly changing situation? More particularly, how well has religious education in the United Kingdom (which, after all, includes Northern Ireland) come to terms with recent changes in our society—the decline in church membership, the weakening of the Protestant ethic, and immigration?

Some organizations have made their position clear. The Order of Christian Unity has attacked the use of the RE period for discussions on moral education, and it has condemned 'those who want to use it for the "new RE" (all world religions, including Marxism, Humanism and Atheism)'. The National Secular Society would no doubt be surprised at seeing atheism included in a roll-call of the world's religions but would be resigned to its denials being dismissed as excessively partisan.

Teachers, however sympathetic, know the kind of difficulties and disruptions to classroom life that can arise whenever members of a small religious group exercise their democratic right to special provision for their children's religious education or withdrawal from it. Some schools solve the problem by sending the children out into the corridor during assembly and into the library during RE. Children may try to take matters into their own hands. Some years ago I myself taught a class which included a young Jehovah's Witness who used to get up and walk out whenever Christmas was mentioned. This proved to be not much of a problem in the summer months, but it became a great nuisance towards the end of the year.

However, the recent publicity given to the problems of conscience and adjustment Muslim parents face when their daughters are allocated to co-educational schools brings to public notice a much more fundamental problem, one that goes much beyond the four walls of the classroom. Now we have to ask ourselves what our attitude should be to the special needs and beliefs of immigrants, many of whom have a secure and long-established culture. Do we tell them 'When in Rome . . .' and damn the consequences? Or do we accept that many immigrants will not want themselves or their children to be integrated into what they would regard as too-permissive British ways? We cannot escape from this dilemma by falling back on the old cliché about 'the needs of the child'. Who is to determine in such cases what these needs are? What rôle, if any, can the school play in the child's religious education? Who should have the final say in the type of education the child should have, the LEA or the parent? How can we, as Dr Mohammed Iqbal asked in a TES article last January, 'ensure that any child has the right to discover for himself the spiritual values which may lead him to a more secure self-awareness'? Can he, indeed, be shown *how* to discover for himself these spiritual values by teachers who are not always sure of their own?

In-service training perspectives

The James Report in January 1972 made new and far-reaching proposals about in-service training for teachers which aroused great interest. In December of the same year a White Paper (*Education: A Framework for Expansion*) adopted as Government policy a great deal of what Lord James's committee had proposed.

The Editors of TRENDS therefore commissioned a number of articles on various aspects of this theme. They were written during 1973 and were to have appeared in January 1974. We had to tell readers in October, however, that owing to printing difficulties the January issue would be delayed until the spring.

At the time of going to press it was clearly not possible to assess what the immediate prospect would be for the pace and direction of development in in-service training. This set of articles, concerned with developments over 10 years or so, is offered as a perspective on the subject by authors with varying experience in the field.

More must be made to mean better

KAY BURTON
Kay Burton is a Staff Inspector for teacher training

The White Paper, *Education: A Framework for Expansion*, declared the Government's faith in what an increase in the in-service education of teachers can do for the education service—'it is a necessary investment in the future quality of the teaching force'. This commitment was based on faith rather than the findings of research, for the evaluation of in-service education, if confined to those methods that involve tight definition of objectives and the elimination of all but two or three variables, may indeed reach positive conclusions, but such unimportant ones that they are not worth the effort. Most educationists continue to believe that in-service education of good quality can lead to improvement in classroom performance, or provide guidelines for innovation in the curriculum, or prepare the teacher for promotion. There is a great range in depth and length of provision, and no consistent correlation between the quality of courses and the awards to which they lead.

It is important to remember that in-service education is not confined to courses. The phrase covers a variety of activities, from a schoolmaster fellowship to educational travel, from reading in

an Institute library to participating in a school-based working-party, from classroom experimentation to a workshop in a teachers' centre. Different objectives have their individual routes to accomplishment, and it is not possible to provide institutionally for all the varied needs of the education service. When the recommendations of the White Paper are implemented, it will be important to ensure that teachers whose needs can best be met outside formal course programmes are treated as generously as those whose attendance at sessions can easily be monitored. A teacher of English may learn more from the opportunity to read deeply in the field of the modern novel, or new schools of criticism (with occasional tutorials), than he would from a planned Cook's tour of a course intended to cover set aspects of certain writers; more from watching the progress of the successors to Headstart programmes than from an academic study of transformational grammar. A geographer may need to enlarge his own experience of ways of living in other countries, bringing back a range of material for use in the classroom; a historian may need to participate in an archaeological excavation, or a linguist to update his knowledge of the spoken language and of contemporary culture. All these are legitimate modes of in-service education.

What is important in all these possible modes of learning is the quality and depth of the experience. The objectives will be varied, even in the more limited field of courses: they can range from the promotion of understanding and communication between the phases of education, the application of the findings of educational research, the critical evaluation of curriculum development projects, to providing a forum for educationists where current and emerging problems can be examined in depth, the issues clarified and constructive solutions outlined. But the common factor in all these experiences should be the demanding level at which thinking proceeds. I am not suggesting that the thinking should be academic in the pejorative sense, but that good work in the classroom can be generated and assessed only on the basis of serious intellectual consideration of the many problems inherent in different learning situations. Concern with nothing but 'tips for teachers' betrays a desire to be given an indefinitely repeatable recipe which will work whatever the circumstances—with no awareness that pedagogy is an adjustable means to a complex progression of ends. In-service education ought to provide teachers with opportunities to examine their educational philosophy, define the objectives resulting from this, and only then attempt to plan the content and techniques of their teaching so that these objectives can be attained. Methods are successful when they are appropriate, but in a changing society objectives must change and methods with them.

Conditions of success

How do we further the cause of quality in in-service education? The same principles apply, whether we have courses in mind or

more informal ways of learning. First, we need to ensure wider understanding of the ways in which adults learn. Our capacity to learn by imitation, by rote or from a statement of principle decreases with age, but we continue to be good at learning from experience, from being challenged, from the necessity to solve a problem. We can exploit skills we have acquired earlier on, put them to new uses, evolve strategies from integrating our resources in new ways. But the experience and the challenge must be provided by a 'centre of excellence', a professional centre of acknowledged standing, which selects a productive experience in the knowledge of what concepts may be learned from it, what ideas within that discipline can legitimately be developed. Without access to tutors of distinction, without an adequate range of resources (books, hardware, software), progress cannot be made, for it is essentially the impact of one mind and personality on another, in a rich environment, that educates. We need to build up teams of tutors accustomed to working together, based on professional centres, who will stimulate and inspire and support teachers who come to learn and explore. This process will make a heavy demand on LEAs, colleges and universities.

Whether the learning is formal or informal, the objectives must be clear to the learner, avoiding the pitfalls of over-generalization or exhaustive precision. He must work out, with assistance if necessary, the best ways by which he can reach them. He needs to become aware of the likely stages of progression and the possible causes of setback, so that he does not become depressed. Learning which involves attitudinal change and the widening of interests is a slow process, in need of consolidation; there can be no instant conversions. So it is important for the learner to be involved in what he can perceive as a series of purposeful activities, leading to an end-product. At the beginning, although the objectives are known, the end-product will be in hazy focus, because he still has to master the new concepts and develop new attitudes, but its definition will become clearer as he makes progress. Progress is seldom logical and sustained; there are moments of illumination when the learner begins to see the purpose and the process as a significant pattern, and feels he is making headway. At this stage he often finds that his initial objectives have broadened and deepened; he is learning more than he expected.

The process of in-service education can never be entirely comfortable, because it involves unlearning much which has become second nature and admitting that one could, in the past, have taught better. So any adult in a learning situation has temptations towards selective inattention, towards perceiving what he would prefer to see rather than what is there, and towards refusal to understand—because to hear, see and understand would constitute a threat to his professional competence and capacity to survive. However much the teacher is anxious to adopt new ways of thinking and teaching, there is always an undertow pulling him back from

reorientation and making him reluctant to leave the safety of what he has known and practised for some time. In-service education of poor quality may only reinforce his reluctance to change.

Because the process is a disconcerting experience, it is all the more necessary to free the teacher from other anxieties. The information service must be good—so that he can be sure he has made the right choice. (Here, the new regional committees and the professional tutors within the schools will have to set up new systems of communication with teachers, so that teachers not only know what is on offer within their region, but can have influence on the programme.) There must be real encouragement to undertake further education, not a grudging recognition of entitlement. There has to be a balance between what the Education Authority considers to be the current needs of its own education service, and the desires of the individual teachers. The professional tutor in the school should be an objective counsellor to his colleagues, not simply the servant of the Authority. The Education Authorities and the regional committees should ensure that first-rate facilities are available to the teacher within a reasonable distance from his home, so that the length of his journeys does not militate against the learning process. Finally there must be adequate financial support. No teacher ought to be out of pocket as a result of attendance at in-service courses.

Evaluation

What he has learned must be put to use, not only in his own classroom but within his department, his school and his neighbourhood. When a teacher undertakes a course of study, dissemination of what he is to learn should be built into the initial scheme. Of course he will also need opportunities for follow-up, and for solving classroom problems that could not be anticipated, and he may need material support from the Authority in providing books, apparatus, software, clerical and technical assistance, if he and they are to realize the full value of his in-service education. All these factors (follow-up, opportunities for dissemination, material support) will build up his confidence in his ability to benefit his pupils; and they will enable the education service to profit from his earlier release from normal duties.

We shall never be able to talk in precise terms of cost-benefit in the field of in-service education, but we should try harder to evaluate its effects in the classroom, after a lapse of time. It is no doubt heartening for a course-organizer to feel, at the end of the event, that everyone has enjoyed it; but what matters is the work that is carried out by everyone's pupils a few months afterwards. What is the nature of the impact made by the course, and how long will it last? We need tools for assessing this. Investigators must be willing to work with both a small sample and a wide range of variables. The system to be interpreted is complex, and the relevant data are inexhaustible; from the data collected, the investigator

has to ascertain the interrelationships and attempt to isolate causes and effects. To do this he must for a time become part of the working life of the school. (It would, of course, be considerably easier to assess the effect of in-service education if the whole of a school staff were able to participate in it simultaneously, and they remained in the same school for the next five years.)

Whether or not we devise a satisfactory method of evaluation, the need for continual scrutiny of in-service education remains. Those who provide opportunities for education must continue to ask themselves: Where are the greatest needs? Is what we are trying to do the most important thing to be done in this field at this time? Are we considering the period five years ahead, as well as the next six months? Are we using the most productive methods? Are we genuinely making it easier for teachers to learn? Are we making them want to go on learning? And in schools, has there been a perceptible change in the pupils' intellectual habits and style of working, in their interest in and involvement in the curriculum, in their self-confidence and creativity?

In-service training: an LEA appraisal

DUDLEY FISKE
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Few people doubt the wisdom of giving priority to a substantial expansion of in-service training in the next decade. It is when we begin to consider the methods of achieving the objectives that things are not as easy as they appear at first sight. Indeed, the more one examines possible strategies for improving and expanding the provision of in-service training, the more difficult the task appears. We must above all avoid the proliferation of courses and other experiences of inferior quality. If in the next 10 years significant numbers of teachers return to their staff rooms with scathing comments about what is being provided in the expanded programmes of in-service training the damage will be enormous.

Each of the new LEAs will need to prepare some kind of 10-year plan for the development of in-service training. Many questions will emerge as soon as an exercise of this nature is attempted, and the rest of this article concentrates on four that seem particularly important. Failure to answer these questions clearly and sensibly could cause the whole operation to fall into disrepute.

How many teachers can we involve?

The James Report came down on the side of voluntary participa-

tion by teachers, and it is reasonable to assume that a teacher forced against his will to participate is unlikely to derive much benefit. This principle of teacher initiative has been accepted by the Government, and the forecast of likely demand that the James Report attempted has been translated into the target for 1981. We are to aim for that year at the release of 3 per cent of the teaching force at any one time—15,000 teachers out of a total of 510,000 so that 45,000 could in theory have a term's course each year. The projections of teacher supply include 20,000 teachers to cover those who are not available for their normal duties because of in-service activities, the difference being needed to cover induction-year release. It is to be hoped that there will also be some cover for a range of in-service activities in addition to the one-term release that is the core of the James proposals.

Assessment of demand is, however, fraught with difficulty. Although there is evidence to support the view of the James Committee which said 'There is no doubt that if training were voluntary some teachers would not choose to take up their entitlement', this is not the complete picture. Many teachers are unable to spend significant periods away from their domestic commitments while others genuinely doubt the merits of what is currently available. The crucial question is surely whether we are prepared to set ourselves a target of 100 per cent involvement and attempt to achieve this through the voluntary principle. Surely our strategy for development should accept no lesser target even though it may take more than 10 years to reach it.

What kind of provision is needed?

If our aim is to have 100 per cent involvement, authorities will need to look at in-service training in a flexible and imaginative manner. They might do worse than attempt to analyse the wishes of their teachers, arranging for a series of individual interviews that will eventually cover every teacher in the service. The purpose would be to find out each teacher's assessment of his own needs and to help him plan an individual approach to his own career development. Heads and other senior staff could be seen and advised by members of the Authority's own advisory service, while other teachers could initially be helped by their Heads of Department. It might help an Authority to identify what is needed if every teacher in the service was asked initially to write a short statement of the kind of in-service training experience that he would like in the next 10 years.

Some teachers, particularly those whose initial training gave them no chance of a degree, would undoubtedly give higher priority to an in-service BEd course or a comparable qualification. Teachers in further education, or in secondary schools where timetables can make appropriate allowances, are often willing to tackle this work through day release but in the primary world the dislocation that this can cause for colleagues and children is often unacceptable

to the conscientious teacher. Others may stake a claim for additional qualifications through one-year full-time secondments — though at least in theory this would appear to pre-empt their entitlement for 21 years! In assessing the priority for such requests the LEA will often meet an objection that these courses are frequently followed by a rapid move or promotion so that the releasing school is doubly the loser.

It also seems likely that a significant number of teachers would prefer to spread their entitlement more evenly than the suggestion of a complete term every seven years. The attraction of the practical courses run by all manner of existing bodies at present cannot be denied and there are many who would argue strongly for release arranged so that a teacher could have two or three weeks of in-service training every year. If this is the likely nature of much of the demand it will clearly pose considerable practical difficulties for the continued running of the schools. A group of fifth formers in a Manchester High School recently complained to their Headmaster about the effect on them of staff being out of school on day release and wrote 'Couldn't the teachers be paid to go on courses out of school hours?'. Probably no significant increase in in-service training will be possible unless we are prepared to look again at the nature of the teacher's contract of service, his working year and his working hours. This may be a matter of national acceptance of a working year officially different in length for teachers and pupils.

There are some pieces of existing practice that could help. For example, the Educational Development Association has successful experience in running effective summer schools in this country to which teachers can take their families and where the programme is both intensive educationally and enjoyable for those who are not teachers. In many Authorities there is now successful experience of in-service training that provides for a whole school staff together and operates in the school building—possibly the most effective way yet devised of ensuring 100 per cent involvement and overcoming many of the reasons proffered by those who do not attend courses.

In short, we need to be imaginative and to recognize as valid in-service training a very varied range of experience. Above all, at a time when there is a call for breaking down the walls of our schools to strengthen the links into the community, we must avoid creating a situation in which in-service training becomes institutionalized inside universities and colleges on a stereotyped pattern of release.

What are the priorities?

Clearly, we cannot quickly do all that is needed in the next few years and it is appropriate to repeat the warning that expansion of opportunities must not be at the expense of real quality of provision. We therefore need to discuss our most urgent needs and above all to recognize that the target of 3 per cent by 1981 makes

little allowance for the considerable number of serving teachers who already have an immediate entitlement to release. Every Authority is already familiar with the conflicting claims of the wishes of an individual teacher on the one hand and the LEA's policy priorities for release on the other. These sometimes coincide to make both parties happy but often they do not.

Government policies in other areas will to some extent inevitably dictate some of the priorities. Every Authority will surely look with favour on those who seek to convert to teaching the nursery pupils, while the higher education policy suggests that priority should also be given to help staff of colleges of education faced with career problems through the cut-back in initial training. Many of the urban LEAs are bound to continue to emphasize the needs of teachers in EPA areas while all will for some years wish to follow up the recent intensive drive to help teachers prepare for coping with all the 15-year-olds. Another priority for release must for some years be given to those employed in the former Junior Training Centres who joined the educational service in 1971. Indeed it seems likely that we shall need to lay special emphasis on bridging the gap between demand and supply of experienced teachers for most of our handicapped pupils.

Beyond these fairly specific categories there is a possible alternative approach. The teaching profession could perhaps be viewed as falling like any large labour force into four main groups:

New Entrants. We are learning now to call the probationary year one of 'induction', but although there are clearly special needs in the first 12 months of service these should not be exaggerated. It is better to think of the first five years, including the early years of return after a significant break of service, as effectively covering this first stage. The in-service needs are specific and frequently involve advice and guidance on method rather than the acquisition of new knowledge. For this first group long periods of full-time release are not appropriate, but towards the end of this period most teachers will have formed a fairly clear idea of how they would like to spend the rest of their service. LEAs might do well to consider systematic interviewing of teachers at this point in their career to attempt a joint assessment of future prospects.

'Pioneers'. Most staff rooms contain a minority of teachers who clearly hope to reach positions of influence and are usually recognized by their colleagues as likely to succeed in their aim. For the future health of the service those people, labelled here as 'pioneers', need to be identified, encouraged and as far as possible assisted through access to the right kind of in-service training. Outright nomination for courses is understandably viewed with suspicion, but when for example a teacher with six or seven years' service aspires to travel towards a Headship, and those competent to judge support his ambition, only a foolhardy employer would refuse appropriate assistance. This group will need longer and

deeper experiences than the short local course, and it is likely to be best for many of their courses to be on a wider basis than that of the individual LEA.

'*Maintainers*'. The structure of the profession means, however, that most teachers at 60 will be doing work very similar to that which they did at 30. Additional payment for certain extra duties may arise but even as a Head of Department much of the day will be spent assisting groups of the young to learn. This group is the backbone of the service and needs above all practical and relevant help. For a central 20 years or more of their service these teachers need frequent and often comparatively short periods of renewal and reappraisal and it should often be possible for the LEA itself to provide what is required. The 'pioneers' of the service can often make a major contribution as tutors and group leaders for the 'maintainers'.

'*Settlers*'. Both the two preceding groups finally reach a point where it is recognized that the next move will be to retirement. This is a period that often covers at least the last 10 years of service. If we neglect this group, the cynical will be able to observe that at the end of the decade most will have left, whereas the alternative investment in the younger part of the profession will still be paying off. Against this it is often the wisdom and stability of those nearing retirement that crucially influences a staff as a whole, and it is in devising in-service training for this group that we need to be most imaginative, flexible and generous. There is a strong case for periods of release with salary with as few ties as possible—leave to write a book, take a world trip, build a boat or even just do nothing. A man or woman who has served well for 30 or 35 years, and who is offered a term off with no strings attached, could return to the final few years of teaching with renewed enthusiasm for a job that could otherwise easily become merely time to be served. An LEA willing to be bold in this way might be pleasantly surprised by the return.

Can we make it effective?

Any LEA that seeks to plan for the next decade a significant expansion of in-service training will face a number of issues that it will not easily resolve—some indeed that require a national lead. Moreover, even if we can ensure a range of marvellous courses, a profession that accepts the priorities for release, and local authorities that finance the expansion generously, there will be yet more to do. For if teachers are inspired to new heights but return to conditions that frustrate and restrain their enthusiasm the whole exercise will be worse than useless. It is here above all that LEAs have a duty to play a significant role in the development of in-service training.

There are three fundamental approaches that every new LEA should adopt as they tackle the task:

a. In a system that increasingly emphasizes the merits of participation, any LEA that plans its in-service training without involving its teachers in the planning process is asking for trouble. The serving teacher may not always accurately assess his true needs in this respect, but if his views are not carefully considered at every stage he is entitled to feel the Authority is not operating in the right way. Systematic assessment of what has been available must form an integral part of the arrangements.

b. In allocating financial resources the LEA must not fail to associate provision of resources in college and school with the programmes for release. Teachers financed by their Authority to attend courses that present new methods and approaches are entitled to expect that on return they will be enabled to apply what they have learned. Nothing will more quickly breed cynicism than a feeling that the release experience raises expectations that neither LEA nor Head can meet.

c. All this indicates that in the next 10 years the expansion of the teaching force to 510,000 should be matched by a comparable growth in LEA advisory services. The old LEAs too often employed a pitifully small local inspectorate and it will be for their successors to put this right. Indeed the size and range of their local service of inspectors or advisers will be one of the best early indications of how seriously the new local authorities are taking their responsibilities for the education service.

The universities and in-service training for teachers*

NORMAN HAYCOCKS

Until his recent retirement, Norman Haycocks was Professor of Education in the School of Education, Nottingham University, Chairman of the School of Education, and Pro-Vice-Chancellor of the University

The distinctive mark of all professions is that they are constantly seeking to deepen and extend their relevant knowledge and to relate it to the exercise of their skills so as to make these more effective. The recognition of this truth underlies the present desire to see an increase in the quantity and an enhancement of the quality

* This article is based on a recent publication, *The In-Service Education and Training of Teachers*, by the Universities Council for the Education of Teachers.

of in-service training for teachers. In this, it is important that the universities should continue to contribute their appropriate share of intellectual leadership in relation to innovation. It is true that practical success in any field can occur in the absence of theoretical analysis. So too can the discovery of new modes of operation. But the validity of techniques must be founded on a more or less coherent theoretical model, however partial or incomplete, and this will best be assured if the development of theory and the improvement of practice continue to be the joint concern of the profession at large and its practitioners in the universities. This is so for other professions, and the advance of teachers towards a full professional status will only be achieved if they and the universities remain closely in touch. It is certainly the desire of the universities that this should be the case.

A major and distinctive contribution from the universities is their provision of long, substantial courses, lasting a year or more full-time, or the equivalent in part-time attendance, permitting prolonged study in depth, and leading to a degree or diploma. These are of immense importance both to the teacher concerned and to the teaching profession as a whole. Only a minority will take them, but the impact is out of all proportion to the numbers involved, since leadership in the profession is increasingly in their hands. Growth there must be in the provision of short and one-term courses, but this should not be allowed to cut back the resources available for one-year secondments for advanced award-bearing courses.

Higher degrees

To begin at the top, it is important that ample opportunity should exist for appropriately qualified serving teachers to read for higher degrees up to and including the level of PhD. It is a truism to say that in no other area of our national life is so much money spent without adequate research or evaluation as in education, and a part of the problem is the shortage of trained researchers. The annual output of students with research degrees in education is abysmally small, and one aim of the expanded in-service arrangements should be to make a start in putting this right. Higher degrees can be taken either by full-time study on secondment or by part-time study (except, in some universities, a PhD), or by a combination of the two. At the Master's degree level, there is now a widespread and welcome trend to offer two sorts of course. The first is based on attendance at lectures and seminars and the study of a number of options, followed by an examination and the submission of a dissertation; it may also be in part a preparation for subsequent research. The second sort of Master's degree is, like the PhD, based wholly on research and the submission of a thesis embodying its results.

First degrees

As the decade goes on, far more new entrants to the profession will be graduates, holding a three-year Ordinary or four-year Honours

BEd, or a BA or BSc with a postgraduate certificate in Education, and it is inevitable and natural that many serving non-graduate teachers will wish to equip themselves with a first degree. Those able to do so should be helped in every way possible, and the numbers of serving teachers studying for a BEd should show a marked increase; these are at present small, but it is already noticeable that among them are many of the BEd graduates achieving the best Honours classification. It is general now for universities to have regulations permitting serving teachers to obtain a BEd after one year of full-time study. In addition, almost half of them make provision for wholly part-time BEd students. Many other teachers have, of course, enrolled with the Open University.

At present, most initial-training BEd structures require a course which includes equally the study of both Education and of another subject (e.g. English, history, mathematics), sometimes with a 'linking unit' between the two. This arrangement has proved a stumbling-block to some serving teachers, especially those in primary schools, who often find the other subject a difficult and irrelevant hurdle, and would greatly prefer an extended course in Education alone, or in Education and closely related disciplines such as psychology or sociology. In fact, a few universities have already modified their regulations so as to allow in-service BEd students to do precisely this. The problem is, however, of wider application and concerns also some initial-training candidates, especially those preparing to teach young children. The present situation is likely to change. With the arrival of three-year as well as four-year BEds and the need to accommodate the new diploma in higher education, there is bound to be a re-casting of the structures, most probably on a unit or modular basis. A result of this should be greater flexibility in the choice of units taken by individual students, with the possibility of selecting more of them, indeed in the case of in-service students perhaps all of them, from within the area of Education and its allied disciplines. A study-group was set up in July 1973 jointly by the University Grants Committee and the Council for National Academic Awards to consider the problems of the BEd in the new situation and to produce some guidelines. Its report will be available for discussion.*

Diplomas

Although many teachers are now, for good and understandable reasons, seeking to obtain degrees rather than diplomas, it is an interesting fact that demand for diploma courses remains very buoyant, and indeed some universities have reported unusually large numbers of applicants for the current session. Clearly they meet a real need.

Of course, where a particular diploma is judged to be fully equal both in scope and in standard to a degree, and where serving teachers would not be disadvantaged by other considerations such

* The report was published in April 1974.

as a raising of entry requirements, there is everything to be said for subsuming these particular diplomas into degree courses. Nevertheless, there can be little doubt that diplomas will have an important rôle to play for some time to come. Particularly in the immediate future, a diploma will frequently suit the release problems and the other needs of serving teachers better than the BEd, since the diploma is planned wholly as a post-experience/post-graduate qualification. It has a varied range of functions. It provides training in leadership for future heads of schools and departments. It offers in its more specialized forms a means of conversion from one area of teaching to another, and also a means whereby teachers can become familiar with recent work in the fundamental disciplines of education, e.g. philosophy, psychology, sociology. It has become an invaluable sifting mechanism for the admission of non-graduates direct to higher degree courses. It has a very important function in relation to overseas students sponsored by the ODA. There may well be changes in the form and content of some diplomas; there may be a trend towards more specialized kinds, often at a higher level, nearer to an MEd option than a first degree. What seems certain, however, is that diplomas will still have a valuable part to play.

A complication, of course, is the fact that a diploma brings to its holder a much smaller salary increment than does a degree, and it is difficult to see any educational logic in this situation. Why should the remuneration for a diploma obtained by a serving teacher not match that for a degree obtained by a serving teacher where the length and standard of study are equal? Only those responsible for teachers' salary negotiations can put this matter right, and the universities are not a party to them.

Other courses

All the foregoing are long courses involving a good measure of sustained academic rigour. Alongside them there will have to be a much enriched provision of shorter courses of all kinds, many of which may, in spite of their short duration, be intellectually very exacting. There will also be new opportunities for developing courses of intermediate length, lasting for a term or its equivalent. It is important to look carefully at the advantages of patterns other than the straight one term full-time. For example, in recent years, ATO/DES courses have achieved great success, firstly because their pattern of work, spread over two or three terms and alternating between short, intensive full-time periods and longer periods of day release or part-time study, has been most efficacious in allowing teachers to try out new ideas in the classroom and report back on them. Secondly, the planning of these courses has entailed the closest possible collaboration between the DES, the LEAs, the universities and the colleges, and this experience needs to be retained and developed. Many other possible patterns suggest themselves. One might, for example, consist of four- to six-week blocks,

preceded and/or followed by day release or part-time study. Another might rely wholly on day release throughout all or most of a year, perhaps with a short residential commitment in a vacation. Another might rely wholly on day release throughout all or most of order to inject a full-time element into otherwise part-time studies for a diploma or degree.

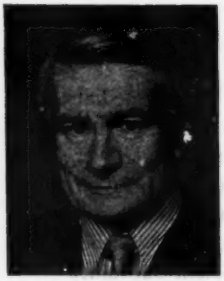
Credits

This last point raises the question whether courses of intermediate length, i.e. a term or its equivalent, might not under certain circumstances count as 'credits' towards a diploma or degree. The Universities Council for the Education of Teachers is strongly in favour of this and has recommended that universities should give it consideration. Obviously, suitable criteria would have to be established to ensure that credit-bearing courses were of sufficient substance and adequately coherent, and not spread over too long a time-span. The difficulties ought not to be insuperable.

Conclusion

It is hoped that the preceding paragraphs will have made clear the continuing wish of the universities to remain fully active in the in-service education and training of teachers, especially in those areas with which they are particularly fitted to deal. In most cases, they will wish to go on providing shorter courses, perhaps focusing especially on the communication of recent knowledge and research and on aspects of theory or practice in which they themselves have sought to pioneer advances. Clearly they also have a particular responsibility for the longer courses leading to diplomas or degrees. Some will also wish to be involved in the provision of courses of intermediate length appropriate to their resources, and if a 'credit' system is developed this will give them much to do. All this will be to the good of the teaching profession, the schools, and the children in them. It will also bring advantages to the universities since, while there must always be a place in a university for 'pure' theory and research, it is reasonable that in an applied discipline such as Education, a good deal of effort should be devoted to problems thrown up by teachers and to developments likely to have a fairly immediate application. Collaboration between teachers and universities is a good way of bringing this about.

ATO/DES courses: a combined operation



JACK KITCHING

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In the spring of 1970 the DES proposed the initiation of new in-service training courses, to be planned jointly by HMI and the Area Training Organizations. These courses have steadily increased in quantity and in importance over the last three years. Funds from the DES meet the cost of tuition, but some of the expense is borne by the Institutes of Education. The LEAs contribute to meeting the expenses of teachers and, where necessary, provide premises.

The main purpose of the programme was to provide courses of intermediate length to fill the gap between the short course of a familiar type and the full-time course leading to formal qualifications. Places on courses leading to qualification were very limited. The only opportunity for further professional development for the vast majority of teachers lay in short courses that gave little chance of study in any depth. From this point of view the ATO/DES programme has filled an important gap in the in-service spectrum.

The DES suggested that intermediate courses should have three major components: an opening full-time element of approximately one week, preferably residential; a part-time element; and a full-time concluding element of two or three days. The whole course might take up to 100 hours, the equivalent of four weeks' full-time work. In this way the concept of the intensive residential course developed within the DES national Programme of Short Courses for Teachers could be applied to courses which, because they were organized on an ATO basis and not a national one, could be extended in the manner suggested, making more sustained studies possible. This framework proved to be sufficiently flexible to stimulate experimental approaches in the planning of the new intermediate courses.

Important initiatives

The proposals for the new programme provided opportunities for three important initiatives in the furtherance of the teacher's professional development: in the first place to develop techniques for coordination and communication among the agencies concerned with in-service training—teachers, employers and trainers; in the second place to ensure that all these arrangements stimulated teacher participation; and finally to experiment with new curriculum and teaching approaches that would enable teachers to work together creatively.

The DES placed the initiative for formulating proposals for ATO/DES courses jointly in the hands of teachers, ATOs and LEAs with the aim of stimulating cooperation between the teachers and those who provide in-service training and of encouraging coordination among the latter. In many ATOs, where no existing machinery for this purpose seemed effective, coordinating committees were set up representing teachers, trainers, LEAs and, later, the Schools Council. It has been the function of these committees to produce balanced programmes of intermediate courses responding to the needs of teachers, administering and developing them through the work of the ATO in-service tutor or organizer. In the event, the committees have also become responsible for linked programmes of short courses.

The success of the ATO in-service programme depends on the ATO informing interested parties about it. It is also of basic importance that the teachers in schools should communiate their needs to those concerned with organizing the in-service work. Successful communication is a prerequisite of successful coordination. In the Durham ATO the coordinating committee has concentrated on the improvement of communication among the agents for in-service training as one of its major functions. The teachers, LEA advisory teams, colleges of education, teachers' centre wardens, HMI, are all involved in the planning through direct representation on the committee, through membership of working parties and through liaison sub-committees such as that for the colleges of education.

The aim has been to stimulate teacher involvement and to break down isolation within the profession. The means adopted were to develop a programme that focused on areas of real professional need and one that was based on the exchange of experience.

Organization and design of courses

The task of the coordinating committee was to identify areas of need, selecting topics that dealt with areas in which teachers had found particular difficulty and on which they would welcome practical guidance. Courses have been a means by which teachers from different LEAs have been brought to work together. Course members have participated in the design of their courses, particularly in the design of the part-time element. Much of the work has entailed visiting schools and other institutions so that experience may be exchanged among colleagues on site.

Teachers and other members of ad hoc working parties, separately elected for each course, recommend the appointment of a director and assist him to outline a plan of the course. The staffs of courses include teachers and members of LEA advisory teams as well as university and college lecturers. The groups into which any course is divided are led by a coordinator who is usually a teacher and who is sometimes recruited from the course membership itself. Each group is responsible not only for devising its own

time-table and curriculum but also for producing materials that may provide the basis for a report in the final full-time sessions of the course.

In the Durham ATO intermediate courses are designed to recruit up to 70 members each, though some courses run in conjunction with the Newcastle ATO and recruiting from the 12 northern LEAs can have over 100 members. So far four such combined courses have been organized. The flexible arrangements for work in the part-time element enables the course to group itself geographically into convenient sets of 12 arranged as far as possible on an inter-LEA basis. On the combined courses the blend of residential elements and local group work elements has enabled teachers from more distant parts of the region to participate without undue difficulty.

All courses approved by the Committee have the same major characteristics—an opening full-time element, a part-time element, and a concluding full-time element. Within this general framework patterns for courses have varied considerably. Sometimes the planning of a course is preceded by a half-day conference so that schools might make known their needs on the particular subject. Each course is individually tailored by the working party in charge of its planning. Thus courses which have recruited teams from school staffs rather than single members may have their full-time elements distributed in a different way so that the schools concerned may release teachers more easily. All courses take approximately the same number of hours but, according to its nature and the wishes of its members, a course may be concentrated into little over one term. On the other hand, a course might last a calendar year, for example, where the members have committed themselves to producing and trying out teaching materials.

All courses are trying to help provide solutions to practical problems. These may be found by building on experience which teachers have had in their own schools and by enabling them to construct an adequate theoretical basis on which they can further develop their practice. Reading lists are issued to the members of each course but a practical approach is emphasized. The opening full-time element is used to introduce members to the main problems with which the course is dealing, and to enable them to develop a policy for the part-time element. Members commit themselves to a minimum of 30 hours working in groups on a programme of visits, discussions and workshops aimed at practical outcomes in their schools. The full-time concluding element is devoted mainly to communication among course members of the work and outcomes of the part-time element. Materials produced in the part-time element include, for example, records of studies, surveys, visits or case studies made during investigation of problems of curriculum and organization, or of teaching materials produced, or a record of practice in the school or in the field when a study is being made in the development of a particular area of

the curriculum. Some courses are producing resource units specifically for in-service training.

Some conclusions

Those who have played a part in the Durham programme have been able to offer a lead in their own LEA or back in their schools, and a number of short courses and group study activities within LEAs have been mounted in response to demand from such schools. As a result of one course, for example, a programme of visits among neighbouring primary schools was undertaken within one LEA. Many schools that have made useful contacts through a colleague who is a member of the course send other teachers on visits. Materials produced by courses are lodged in teachers' centres throughout the region for the use of local groups, and some of the discussion appearing in local curriculum publications, staff papers and internal curriculum bulletins in schools owes its origin to work commenced on an ATO/DES course. The courses have provided a means whereby Schools Council Curriculum Development work becomes known and understood. The processes of dissemination from ATO/DES courses and resultant developments within schools take many forms.

The ATO/DES courses approximate in length to the four-week course suggested by the James Report as a unit to count towards the registered teacher's in-service entitlement. They can require a substantial commitment on the part of course members, and experience seems to indicate that teachers are finding courses of this character and length sufficiently demanding and rewarding. In an expanded and flexible system for teacher education and training, programmes made up of such units offer possibilities for the development of coherent patterns of in-service training for individual teachers. In the future they could form a basis for the development of a system of credits counting towards a professional qualification, and provide a bridge into further study, research and curriculum development work.

In-service training for FE teachers

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To possess experience of industry, commerce or other vocational work is of key importance for many teachers in further education.

For those transferring from this employment to teaching at a mature age, pre-service training may involve problems of finance and residence making it unattractive and sometimes completely impossible. It thus often falls to the employing authority to organize such initial training as is given. To get a job as an FE teacher it is not, of course, necessary to be trained; suitability for the work is normally judged from the vocational qualifications, the experience, and what an interview reveals of the candidate. Only about one-third of all FE teachers have successfully completed an approved course of professional teacher training. In-service courses may therefore constitute initial as well as continuing training.

Introductory courses

Many employing authorities make arrangements for new teachers to attend introductory sessions similar to the 'induction' provided in other employments. When the college is large they may be organized internally; alternatively they may be provided at a single institution to meet the needs of an area, colleges of education (technical) sometimes serving for this purpose. Internal sessions may be arranged on a half-day basis to allow times also for departmental meetings. The sessions may include a very first introduction to methods of teaching, perhaps going little beyond 'tips for teachers'.

After the initial sessions some authorities arrange for a continuation of the induction course spread over the first year and sometimes longer. In most instances this is organized to lead to qualifications such as those of the City and Guilds of London Institute, the Royal Society of Arts, or to university qualifications in education frequently awarded through the colleges of education (technical).

Some teachers are seconded to attend one of the four colleges of education (technical) full-time for one year or on a sandwich course involving two terms in college. When release of this kind is not practicable because of the situation in the college where the teacher is serving, or of the personal circumstances of the individual, attendance at locally provided courses has sometimes been arranged.

Over recent years the colleges of education (technical) have established on an experimental basis in polytechnics and other colleges more than 30 extra-mural centres which recruit teachers for part-time courses often from considerable distances, thus serving as regional or sub-regional centres. The courses lead to the same qualifications as those at the parent college. Attendance normally involves a substantial amount of preparative work in addition to the time spent in travelling and in class, the total commitment often amounting to at least 1½ days weekly over two years, together with block periods of attendance totalling eight weeks or more. Not all authorities are able to allow a relaxation of working hours on this scale and individual teachers are there-

fore sometimes faced with carrying an added load partly in their own time.

Courses for the Further Education Teachers Certificate of the City and Guilds of London Institute are provided at more than 170 colleges; although designed primarily for part-time teachers and for instructors from industry and the Services, many full-time teachers take advantage of them for basic training which includes supervised teaching practice. About one-sixth of the current annual total of 2,500 examination entries are received from full-time teachers. The City and Guilds of London Institute has under consideration the possibility of developing courses which could be adapted more closely to the needs of serving full-time teachers; a modular system might be evolved enabling some choice in programme to meet individual needs yet allowing sound and economic provision for both full-time and part-time teachers. There has long been an expressed hope that such a development might be so devised that the work done could stand in credit towards the qualifications awarded through the colleges of education (technical).

Planning to meet need

Continuing training has been provided in various forms for many years for teachers in further education. Its scale varies considerably, however, between individual institutions and even between the different departments within them. In few cases has it been evolved on a systematic basis as a result of an identification of needs, more usually having been generated by the independent requests of individual teachers.

As a sound basis for the planning of training it is probable that the needs of the institutions and the needs of the individual teacher should be assessed separately and the assessments subsequently coordinated in discussion with the individual. The work of the Further Education Staff College in its conferences for principals and for heads of departments,[1] and the report[2] of the joint working party of ACHFE and APTI have made many aware of the inadequacy of present arrangements for staff development, and interesting projects are afoot. Some polytechnics have assigned to deputy directors a specific managerial responsibility for this area. Other colleges have appointed lecturers in education having predominantly an in-service training rôle. But work is not yet far advanced towards establishing whether there are identifiable training needs for those who will be concerned with assessment, and in few colleges has the assessment of needs of other members of staff been pursued on a systematic basis as yet. Continuing training has up to now consisted very largely of up-dating and extension

[1] Staffing and staff development. Coombe Lodge Report Vol. 6, No. 1. Further Education Staff College, 1973.

[2] Staff development in further education. Report of a joint working party. Association of Colleges for Further and Higher Education/Association of Principals of Technical Institutions, 1973.

of the teacher's knowledge of the subject taught, undertaken often on the initiative of the individual and frequently without any systematic appraisal of the relative needs of the various members of staff. There has also been some movement towards keeping abreast with developments in pedagogy, notably in educational technology. A recent survey[3] of the attitudes of staff and students in polytechnics undertaken by a team from the Polytechnic of North London showed that, overall, 48 per cent of a valid sample of those teaching undergraduates had attended courses in teaching methods in the last five years.

The importance of preparation for a change of rôle has perhaps been less realized. Certainly it has been the exception for teachers to need to transfer from one subject to another. However, there have been indications in recent years that fluctuation in demand on different departments may cause teachers to seek career opportunities through a change in discipline. Forward planning of the development of courses within a college could well be linked with individual career development to an increasing extent in the future.

Many who are already heads of departments or principals attend conferences at the Further Education Staff College but there is a frequent comment that greater benefit could be achieved if individuals could take part before assuming managerial responsibilities. Perhaps those who sponsor attendances should have more regard to the potential value of conferences as preparation for rôle change. Colleges are developing arrangements for more individual work with students which may well lead teachers to be involved in tutoring and in counselling to a greater extent than in the past. Systematic preparation for this work also seems desirable.

The importance of the coordination of assessments of institutional and individual needs has already been mentioned. Those of the institutions arise principally from the maintenance or improvement of quality and from projected developments; those of the individual become apparent to him through his professional awareness, from his views on personal development and perhaps from some career plan. There is frequently found to be a sensitivity about assessing the quality of the teaching/learning situation in the classroom. While there are proper reticences about interfering with the professional independence of the teacher, most would themselves agree that their perception of the learning situations which they engender is necessarily limited and that an outside appraisal could help them. Surveys carried out by HM Inspectors in two colleges recently have shown that of the substantial sample of teachers interviewed virtually all would see no objection to, and many would positively welcome, visits by suitably chosen colleagues which would enable subsequent confidential discussion

[3] Research into Polytechnics. National Survey of Staff Teaching on First Degree Courses. Preliminary report, J. Whitburn, M. Mealing and C. Cox, 1972.

of their strengths and weaknesses in the classroom. Often teachers have points of excellence in their presentations and methods, knowledge of which could benefit others in their colleges; many would be only too pleased to assist in a general improvement of standards by allowing others to benefit from their strong points while themselves learning from those of their colleagues.

A wide range of resources is available to meet the needs identified for individual teachers. In many colleges there has been a long tradition of careful guidance for new teachers entering further education. Some assign senior colleagues to newcomers to act as mentors. Membership of development teams for the introduction of new courses and participation in team teaching provide valuable training for all concerned. Some heads of departments encourage a policy in which new members of staff are welcome to visit their classes and those of experienced teachers, and in other colleges an 'open door' situation is being promoted in which all teachers may benefit from mutual visitation. Consultancy may have a part to play in professional development especially where the subject taught is of relevance to local industry, commerce or public service.

Other resources

Outside the college, teachers may take advantage of the Open University, of radio and television series, and sometimes of facilities at neighbouring colleges. On a regional basis the extra-mural centres of the colleges of education (technical), the resources of polytechnics and of regional centres for management education, and university provision frequently make contributions. The Regional Advisory Councils for Further Education arrange courses and conferences and in some areas organize groups of teachers to work cooperatively between the colleges in curriculum development. Nationally the professional bodies and learned societies together with the universities and polytechnics make the greatest contribution to maintaining awareness of the current development of subjects. The colleges of education (technical) and some university departments of education provide courses, sometimes including an element of research, which lead to advanced diplomas in further education; the first of the BEd courses for serving FE teachers has now started. The Department of Education and Science also brings together groups of teachers in its programme of short courses.

The emphasis in the preceding paragraphs has been on arrangements for full-time teachers. In-service training might, however, be of ultimate benefit to more than proportionately larger numbers of students if it could also be developed for part-time teachers. Part-time students often receive a substantial proportion of their instruction in evening classes for which part-time teachers are responsible.

The situation described clearly has great potential for the future, the more so when account is taken of the merging of teacher training and further education institutions which will follow the White

Paper and Circular 7/73. With suitable regional coordination the new institutional structure, with the existing network of extra-mural centres of colleges of education (technical) and colleges providing courses for the FE Teachers Certificate of the City and Guilds of London Institute, should lend itself well to adaptation to meet evolving pedagogical needs. Such a development would match the provision of professional centres and teachers' centres for school teachers, but there could be substantial losses if two mutually independent systems were to emerge. The needs of some students in FE are frequently no different from those in sixth forms whereas others have needs closely similar to those in adult education. It follows that coordination of the in-service training of teachers in the various phases of education requires continuous and careful attention.

The theme for special treatment in the next issue of TRENDS will be Innovation.

City centre schools and community relations

Children's racial attitudes are beginning to be formed long before they go to school. What can city-centre schools do to ease racial tension?

P. SINGH

Mr Singh is an HMI in the North Midland Division and his special responsibility is the education of overseas pupils

Immigration often highlights inadequacies in the general social provision for everyone living in city centre areas. The response to these is taking its course with provision of urban aid, the development of nursery education and other government and community projects. But whatever the physical provision the most important needs would seem to be the easing and eradication of tensions whether their causes lie in class or colour.

Some research findings in the field of race relations[1] suggest that attitudes are being formulated well before the age of school entry. Education, if it is to be a major influence in easing the situation, must do so from its first contact with parents and children. Schools, after all, are the only institutions with which all families have to come into contact for any length of time, and many of the hopes for the development of good community relations lie in the creation of lasting relationships in schools between children of varying backgrounds.

But schools cannot operate in a vacuum outside their general social context. Pupils are as strongly influenced by outside agencies as by their formal educational environment, and schools therefore seem to have a vital bridging rôle between different sections of the community they serve. The complexity and diversity of the areas served by city centre schools makes this no easy task. There are: first, pupils from various ethnic backgrounds, constituting a variety of language and cultural groups; secondly, the needs of deprived indigenous pupils whose problems are by no means easily diagnosed or met; and, thirdly, immigrant groups with more in common with the social norms of teachers and others outside the down-town areas of large cities than with the indigenous groups who are their neighbours and immigrant groups who are reluctant to make contact with schools partly because of the example of indigenous groups, practices and attitudes—to mention only a few.

[1] e.g. GOODMAN, MARY E. Race awareness in young children. New York, 1964 (Collier-Macmillan); MILNER, DAVID. Racial identification and preference in black British children. *New Society*, 23 September 1972.

Does there exist something called 'community relations' or are there only relationships between individuals? There have been attempts to collectivize relationships with the setting up of national and local organizations, and this may be reasonable if it is possible to identify closely knit communities. But minority groups do not always see themselves as such, even though there may be similarities in geographical background and appearance. This is not to deny the value of much of the work done by community relations agencies. It may be that the constant labelling of groups makes them more vulnerable to the prejudice that exists in society.

During the last 10-15 years there has been plenty of discussion on multi-racial problems—broadcasts, journalism, political debate, research, Schools Council projects and literature. Despite this there has been no consensus as to what is educationally and socially desirable practice in schools and little general movement by schools and communities to come together—as indicated in the NFER research *Organization in Multi-Racial Schools*.[1] Nevertheless there have been some promising developments in a number of fields, and evidence of productive home-school partnerships wherever sensitive relationships have been established.

Relations with parents

Some schools realized very early that if they were to have sufficient knowledge of their immigrant pupils they would have to have a constructive dialogue with parents. The schools organize meetings with parents and arrange to have discussions with them in their own languages, when necessary, through the use of interpreters. Purposes of the meetings vary but often they are to explain fundamental facts about school organization which can lead to misunderstandings. It is evident, for example, that many parents do not understand streaming, transfer according to age, transfer at 11+, the difference between CSE and GCE courses, and the school leaving age. Equally teachers have as much to learn about parental backgrounds, child-rearing practices, religious and cultural beliefs and aspirations for children. The best way to learn such details is likely to be from a closer parent-teacher relationship. This argues for close social contact rather than the formal meeting.

Social contacts

In some areas this is being tackled by the appointment of home-liaison teachers who visit parents in their own homes and encourage a more positive contribution towards their children's education. Some schools have appointed immigrant teachers who may fulfil a similar function and can prove valuable in solving teachers' and children's problems when cultural misunderstandings occur. School buildings have sometimes been made available to religious groups for the holding of their services, and this has on occasions led to

[1] TOWNSEND, H. E. R., and E. M. BRITTAN. Organization in multi-racial schools. Windsor, 1972 (NFER).

headteachers and the staff of the schools concerned being invited to join the subsequent social occasions.

English language teaching for mothers has been a useful avenue of social contact, particularly when facilities have been made available for the care of children when the teaching goes on. Occasionally schools use the knowledge and expertise of parents to support the teaching of particular aspects of the curriculum. This has been particularly beneficial in areas such as religious studies where the religion being studied is that of the parents and the teachers' knowledge may be limited.

Environment and social class

The generalization that the nature of the locality lived in is an indication of social class and educational potential may not be valid. It cannot be applied to immigrant groups whose cultural and social background and position within their own class structure are high. Failure to understand the community served by the school may result in a disservice to children if teachers equate the term 'immigrant child' with 'deprived child' in the generally accepted sense of children from poorly supported social and cultural backgrounds. In reality the needs of the children of parents from overseas may be quite different. The presence of large numbers of immigrant children in the lower streams of secondary schools can indicate this sort of misunderstanding; it may also indicate organizational inflexibility or the use of assessment procedures which have little, if any, relevance to culturally diverse groups.

Classroom studies

There has been no shortage of effort in trying to find ways in which normal human relationships can be established through study in the classroom. The Schools Council humanities project was probably the first to try a direct approach. Some schools have instituted 'black studies' courses at CSE level as much to enable the immigrant youngsters to develop a sense of self-identity as to encourage the consideration of other cultures and traditions.

But perhaps the most effective approaches are those that take account of prejudice from the time children enter their first schools to the time they leave, carefully choosing materials and topics, not only to show diversity as a natural phenomenon but also allowing sensitive consideration of the strengths and weaknesses of all cultures. Source materials are always a problem but with the development of thinking in recent years materials are being identified and developed in such areas as the Schools Council moral education project and religious education project, the bibliography *Books for the Multi-Racial Classroom* by Judith Elkin at Birmingham Children's Library, and Janet Hill's bibliography *Books about the Homelands of Immigrants* (Institute of Race Relations). The latest national development is the setting up of another Schools Council project, *Education for a Multi-Racial Society*, which

should add to our knowledge and understanding, and, of course, the Community Relations Commission constantly produces a stream of helpful materials.

Is the piecemeal development of ideas, materials and approaches enough or should there be a central agency to act as a catalyst, disseminator and even innovator of research and curriculum projects? How should the developmental pot be kept boiling and topped up so as to avoid complacency, not unknown in this area of education?

Removing tensions

Among the most important recent developments is the recognition that second language teaching, crucial as it is, is not in itself more than an introduction to the child's total needs—that children are unlikely to learn effectively unless due consideration and respect are given to their native language and background. It can be argued that by giving children no opportunities to study their own language, and their own religions, vital areas of parental concern are being ignored. This may cause tension, in spite of the fact that parents put a great deal of faith in the education system. Parental concern may be more strongly felt at this time with the expansion of nursery education: an early exposure to an English-speaking environment should not mean that less time is spent on the establishment of their first language.

The school leavers

At the other end of the spectrum stands the immigrant school leaver. Many children will have insufficient time in the English system to develop their academic potential sufficiently to enable them to be successful in public examinations, and the range of employment open to them will be narrow, thus denying society the opportunities of meeting these young people in all walks of life. Further education opportunities specially designed for such youngsters exist in some places but do not appear to meet the demands. Should the required qualifications for these young people for entry into professional training be replaced by teacher prediction? Would discussions between trades councils, chambers of commerce, youth employment officers and teachers help to ensure that those children going to other types of employment are not placed purely on the basis of assessment procedures which may be incapable of measuring with any degree of accuracy their aptitudes and interests?

Tests of English for immigrant children: patterns of performance

The NFER has devised a set of English proficiency tests suitable for immigrant junior-school children. What do these tests reveal about the levels of linguistic skill found in different immigrant groups?

CAROLINE GIPPS and ELIZABETH EWEN

Mrs Caroline Gipps and Mrs Elizabeth Ewen are both former school teachers. They are now psychologists and research workers at the NFER

In September 1969, work began on a project, sponsored by the DES, to develop a set of English proficiency tests, suitable for immigrant children of junior-school age. The first year of background research took place at the University of Birmingham, and was followed by two years of test development, undertaken by the NFER. The final administration of the tests was carried out in March, 1972. From the analysis of the results obtained, certain patterns of performance emerged in terms of the overall proficiency of different groups of children. It should be remembered, however, that the results were the outcome of the development of the tests, and as such are only tentative.

Classroom tests

The tests are designed specifically for classroom use, and are suitable for all immigrant children of junior school age whose native language or dialect is different from the English required in school and whose English proficiency is in doubt.

The function of the tests is threefold—first, they can be used to help teachers with placement to decide whether new pupils should be placed in special language classes or given any extra tuition, and whether pupils in special classes are ready to return to normal classes. Secondly, they should give teachers specific linguistic information for each child tested, which can be used as a diagnostic guide for future teaching. Thirdly, they should be helpful to teachers in monitoring the progress of their immigrant children.

The tests have been constructed at three levels of skill corresponding roughly to words, sentences and passages in the four language areas of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Only the speaking tests require individual administration; all the others are group administered. Teachers are provided with a guide giving details of the content of the tests at each level, in order to enable

them to choose the most appropriate level or levels for the children to be tested. During the development of the tests, however, all the children sampled, whatever their proficiency, began with the easiest level and continued with as many of the tests as the teachers felt they could reasonably attempt; it was thereby possible to make a direct comparison of the difficulty of each level. All the items within a given test are of similar difficulty, and a child may be regarded as having achieved 'mastery' of the skill tested if a certain percentage of items have been correctly answered.

Most tests used by teachers give norm tables, so that a child's score can be interpreted in relation to the scores of other children of the same age. Norms for these tests which would enable comparison of an immigrant child's score with that of English children of a similar age would be of interest to the teacher no doubt; but in the case of the child who is not up to the level of proficiency of the native child, norms would give little in the way of practical help, as they cannot be translated directly into teaching terms. It was therefore decided that, for these tests, scores should be reported in relation to the content of the tests and the skills measured by them in order to indicate to the teacher how much each child knows or can do, and so in what direction and at what level further teaching should be aimed.

A certain proportion of items are common to tests at the same level in two or more language areas, facilitating the assessment of a child's relative skill in different areas. The child may, for example, succeed on an item in listening but not in reading, or in reading but not in writing. In such cases, failure on an item can be associated directly with a lack of proficiency in the language area involved, rather than with a lack of knowledge of the particular vocabulary or structure used. An additional diagnostic feature of the tests consists in the fact that teachers are provided with a list of the vocabulary and/or structures tested in each item so that a scrutiny of the pattern of responses within a test should indicate areas of particular difficulty for the child.

The items in the listening and reading tests are all of the multiple-choice type, the response choices being pictures at the first two levels and spoken or written English at level three. The scoring of tests of this type is, of course, a straightforward procedure, since each item is marked simply as right or wrong. The speaking and writing test items, on the other hand, are all open-ended, the child producing words, sentences or longer passages of language in response to pictorial or verbal stimuli. The problem of producing a viable and appropriate scoring system for open-ended responses has been resolved by an emphasis on 'intelligibility' as the major criterion for scoring, rather than on a more detailed analysis of errors.

The sample

The sample was divided into two racial groups, Asian and West

Indian, and three 'length-of-stay' groups:

Group	*Length of stay in the UK*
Group I	Up to 18 months at school
Group II	18 months to 3½ years at school
Group III	3½ to 5½ years at school

It was decided to have separate racial/linguistic groups, as having a racially mixed sample of immigrants would have made the results unnecessarily difficult to interpret.

Age was not a pre-selected variable as in previous pilot testing it was found that the length of exposure to English was more important than age.

The final sample consisted of:

Racial group	*Length-of-stay group*	*Number in sample*
Asian	I	288
Asian	II	281
Asian	III	242
West Indian	I	98
West Indian	II	235
West Indian	III	194

Considerable difficulty was encountered in assembling the West Indian group I sample, which as a result was rather small.

A separate sample of 130 Asian group I children attending full-time centres was also included.

The sample was drawn from 72 schools and centres widely distributed over the country.

Patterns of performance

An analysis was carried out to calculate the numbers of children passing and failing at each of the levels in the various skill areas. The criterion for success was set at 90 per cent correct for level one, 80 per cent correct for level two and 70 per cent correct for level three. The two open-ended writing and speaking tests were omitted from this analysis as it is not possible to have a percentage-based cut-off point when the scoring is open-ended.

On some of the tests, there was a tendency for West Indians to perform less well with increasing length of stay in Britain, as compared with the Asians. This would seem to lend support to the findings of H. E. R. Townsend and E. M. Brittan[1] with regard to West Indian pupils, in suggesting that educational provision, at least at the primary stage, has not yet succeeded in meeting the

[1] Townsend, H. E. R., and E. M. Brittan. Organization in multi-racial schools. Windsor, 1972 (NFER).

needs of this group, in particular that of special language tuition. LEAs have been extremely generous in providing facilities to cope with the language problems of non-English speakers, but it has only recently been established that dialect speakers are also in need of special help.

In the listening tests, the comparisons between Asians and West Indians are interesting and consistent; more Asians than West Indians fail level one in all groups, but the gap narrows as the length of stay increases. In both groups I more West Indians pass level three but in groups II and III, more Asians pass level three. This trend would seem to indicate that West Indians start off at an advantage in listening, but that Asians catch them up and eventually become more proficient.

As far as the reading tests are concerned, a similar trend emerges with Asians in groups II and III performing better than the West Indians, although in group I, performance is much the same. The interesting point here is that in groups I and II 43 per cent and 41 per cent respectively of all the children fail Reading One, which entails the comprehension of simple sentences, e.g. 'He is standing' or 'This is a table'.

In the writing tests, however, for the first time Asian children have an advantage over the West Indians in group I and maintain it at a steady rate throughout groups II and III. Again, a proportion of both groups I and II (52 per cent and 48 per cent respectively) fail Writing One.

In the speaking tests, as might be expected, the West Indian children perform consistently better than the Asian children. This is hardly surprising, as, if West Indian children do speak a dialect, it is still largely intelligible to native English speakers, and this is the basis for scoring the speaking tests.

In comparing the performance of the group I Asian children in normal classes with those in full-time language centres, the results are quite clear cut: the children in the normal classes score significantly better on all the listening, reading and writing tests. The speaking test comparisons show no significant difference between the groups, but, as the sample size was very small, these results must be interpreted with caution. Earlier pilot testing had shown, however, that the language centre sample performed better than the Asian group I sample.

The results in the later trials might be due to the fact that, although all the children had been in the UK for less than 18 months, the centres cater for the most recently arrived children who would in any case perform less well. Alternatively, even where language centres are available for all newly arrived children, it is likely that children with the most language problems will be the ones to be sent there. It is hoped that the position will be clarified by the results of the survey, also financed by the DES, *Proficiency in English of Immigrant Children of Differing Educational Experience.*

In comparing the performance of boys and girls in the same groups, very few sex differences were observed. There were none at all in the listening and reading tests; in the writing test there were three cases when girls did better than boys; in the speaking tests two cases when boys did better than girls and three cases when the girls did better than boys, all in group I.

In comparing the results between groups, all the results were in the expected direction, i.e. with longer-stay children performing better than shorter-stay children. Group III performed significantly better than group II on all the tests except speaking. Group II children scored significantly higher than group I children only in the two easier listening tests and the most advanced writing and speaking tests. It might have been expected that there would be a more distinct difference in performance between groups I and II—the lack of it suggests that either the most recently arrived children are of a higher standard than those who have been here longer, or that generally speaking, improvement in language skills begins to have an effect in the $1\frac{1}{2}$-$3\frac{1}{2}$ years stage and is consolidated in the $3\frac{1}{2}$-$5\frac{1}{2}$ years stage.

At present, a survey is being conducted in which the tests are being used to compare the performance of native English children with that of first—and second—generation immigrants of varying educational experience. It is intended to analyse the results of the survey, not only in terms of overall proficiency, but also in relation to the particular language problems of the different racial groups as revealed by their patterns of response to the test material.

These tests are now on the market. All enquiries about them should be addressed to the NFER, The Mere, Upton Park, Slough, Bucks, SLI 2DQ.

The 'Vo-Tech' in the context of the 1970s

E. J. T. BRENNAN

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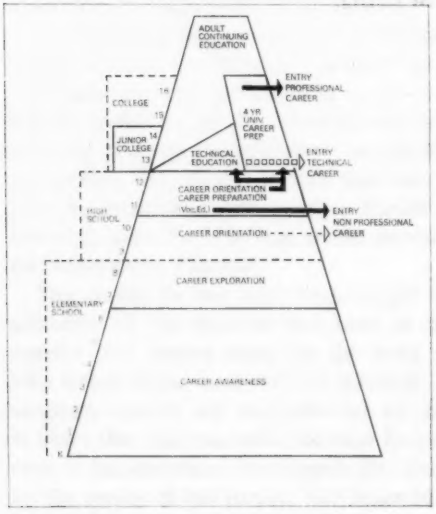
The pragmatic in American education

At a time when there seems to be in Britain a move away from the 'practical, realistic, vocational' philosophy espoused by the Newsom Committee of 1963 towards a general education for all young people up to the age of 16, it is interesting to note current trends in the United States which have re-asserted the traditional educational pragmatism of that country. 'Fitness for life' has always been a crucial concept in curriculum planning within the United States. Its latest flowering is known quite simply as 'career education'.

'Career education' is more than vocational training. It is true that it embraces vocational training but it goes much further in that it is conceived as a valid aim for all students, not simply for the dispossessed, disadvantaged, or just plain stupid. In the form of 'career awareness' it is meant to impinge on the minds of children as young as six. At the high school level it evolves into 'career



Career Education: Illinois model.

orientation' and 'career preparation'. For those students who so wish, it can form the mainstay of college and university courses of study. The aim of 'career education' as a whole is to ensure that all students leaving school or college, including those who leave before completing high school, have at their disposal skills which will give a start in promoting economic self-sufficiency. A pattern which is not untypical is that which has been drawn up for the state of Illinois.

To some extent career education is a response to the 'drop out' problem of the '60s. In the past vocational education began in the high schools at the junior year, i.e. for young people of 16 or over. By that time it was often too late to minimize the disenchantment of countless high school students with increasingly college-oriented courses. It is of course well known that there was a disproportionate representation of black and other minority groups in this 'drop-out' population.

Secondly, there has been an increasingly voiced concern—recently echoed in Great Britain—that the colleges and universities are over-producing graduates for the professions. Paradoxically, and despite the forebodings of automation-obsessed commentators, there is a serious shortage of skilled workers in many occupational groups, a feature which has been exacerbated by the virtual collapse of the industrial apprenticeship system. It has been calculated, for example, that in the next four years one and a half million additional secretaries will be needed, the number of people employed in certain computer fields will double, and brand-new occupations like pollution control are going to need armies of technicians to man them. It has also been calculated that one-half of the jobs that will open up in the 1970s will require training beyond high school, but below the four-year degree level.

In this context, therefore, the current stress on career education makes a good deal of economic sense. Perturbed radicals may feel that it also makes a good deal of social sense for an anxious establishment. In short, it has been said that it is a staggering re-assertion of the importance of the work ethic by an administration which has been concerned with the deleterious effects of that sort of individual autonomy which, lacking a central core of shared belief, seemed likely in the late 1960s to threaten the very fabric of American society.

Putting career education into practice

The 1968 amendments to the Vocational Education Act passed five years earlier provided for the first time the necessary administrative structures and funding to make it viable. Sidney P. Marland, Commissioner of the US Office of Education, has declared it to be among the highest priorities of his administration, and it is claimed that most of the national educational associations have welcomed this realignment of curriculum priorities. A formidable literature is now emerging. I have selected some of the most significant

features from *Career Education: A Handbook for Implementation*, a recent publication of the Office of Education in Washington, as being of particular interest to teachers in Great Britain. In order to reduce the possibility of misinterpretation, and despite some temporary indulgence in 'educanto', it is necessary to quote exactly from the original document:

1. Preparation for successful working careers shall be a key objective of all education.
2. Every teacher in every course that has career relevance will emphasize the contribution that subject matter can make to a successful career.
3. 'Hands-on' occupationally oriented experiences will be utilized as a method of teaching and motivating the learning of abstract academic content.
4. Preparation for careers will encompass the mutual importance of work attitudes, human relations skills, orientation to the nature of the workaday world, exposure to alternative career choices, and the acquisition of actual job skills.
5. Learning will not be reserved for the classroom but learning environments for career education will also be identified in the home, the community, and employing establishments.
6. Beginning in early childhood and continuing through the regular school years, allowing the flexibility for a youth to leave for experience and return to school for further education, including opportunity for upgrading and continued refurbishing for adult workers and including productive use of leisure time and the retirement years, career education will seek to extend its time horizons without beginning and without end.
7. Career education is a basic and pervasive approach to all education, but it in no way conflicts with other legitimate education objectives such as citizenship, culture, family responsibility, and basic education.

There are, of course, in this document profound implications for all educational institutions within the United States. But if there are schools which, more than any others, seem to embody the new philosophy they are the vocational-technical schools. Known for short as 'vo-techs', they are beginning to arise in appreciable numbers across the country and are becoming some of the show places of the '70s. There is nothing defeatist or shamefaced in their appearance. In terms of provision and amenities there is certainly no hint of second-best for the 15 and 16 year olds who enter their doors.* The courses provided for these young people derive from an unqualified and unambiguous acceptance of the needs of a technology-based society and of the personal fulfilment that can flow from involvement in the world of work.

What then are the programmes which are on offer in these resplendent new establishments and in the career-oriented high schools? Certain broad occupational areas immediately present themselves for consideration. Some high schools offer as many as five groupings with a profusion of courses under each heading. Here for example is the breakdown of one school operating under 'the Illinois model': 1. applied biological and agricultural

* It is possible in certain areas to embark on such courses at a younger age. Pennsylvania School Law, for example, permits 14 year olds to enrol, providing that they have reached the 10th grade.

occupations 2. business, marketing and management 3. health occupations 4. industrial oriented occupations, and 5. personal and public service occupations. There is a close liaison with industry. Many of the courses fall under the heading of 'co-operative education' which means that they include a substantial amount of work experience. To quote once more from *Career Education: A Handbook for Implementation*, the new emphasis:

> denies to the school any monopoly as a learning environment yet gives the school a key role in identifying and co-ordinating all learning environments which can further the career goal.

Those teachers in Britain who have found the task of organizing work experience schemes to be somewhat frustrating may well envy so positive an endorsement of the rôle of the school in this respect.

The current American liking for 'the engineering model' of the curriculum is immediate discernible in the 1972 *Handbook for Implementation*, for career education is seen as having the added attraction that 'it provides a specific objective—successful career performance—which is practical, achievable, and measurable'. It also, it is claimed, has the advantage of 'giving meaning and relevance to otherwise abstract academic subject matter'. To teachers who have failed to persuade their charges to drink at the fountain of knowledge there springs renewed hope.

There certainly seems to be far less sniping at the so-called 'Protestant ethic' than seems to be the case with a growing number of teachers here at home. Again, to quote from the official *Handbook*:

> . . . Career education is the total effort of public education and the community aimed at helping all individuals to become familiar with the values of a work-oriented society, to integrate these values into their personal value systems, and to implement these values in their lives in such a way that work becomes possible, meaningful, and satisfying to each individual.

Motivation for learning

Here in Britain there has been throughout the past 10 years or so a move away from vocational education in the schools, largely on the grounds that the provision of such courses for certain children only is socially divisive. This may well be the case. Certainly its potential divisiveness would not be denied in either the USSR or the USA. The answer given in both these societies, however, is not to abolish education for the world of work but to take steps to ensure that all young people—not simply the underprivileged or less able—receive their education in a context where this sort of fitness for life is not held to be second-best.

A second charge is that such a concept is bound by its very nature to be illiberal. Such dangers are less easily denied and in Britain the perils have been spelled out at some length in the great Rosla debate of the last decade. In a historical context, however,

it should be remembered that technical education—in itself a special form of career education—has found official favour on comparatively few occasions so far as the schools are concerned. Furthermore, in the post-war period the secondary technical schools which provided liberally structured but technically centred curricula, were never really permitted, given the climate of the times, to compete on equal terms with the grammar schools which enjoyed traditional links with the most highly regarded British universities and with the most prestigious courses within those self-same institutions. Such schools are nowadays the increasingly forgotten element in the tripartite system. The United States, as is well-known, never laboured to the same extent under this misapprehension. The vehement rejection by John Dewey of 'the useless lumber' in the curriculum at the beginning of this century held an immense appeal for a society which had only just completed its settlement of its lands to the west. From a historical perspective therefore, the current stress on career education is in one sense a return to the fold.

Are there any hints in all of this of future developments here at home? As stated earlier, Newsom's gospel of the 'practical, realistic, vocational' has taken something of a knocking, not least from the educational philosophers. It would seem that very many special Rosla courses are disappearing into the maw of the total curriculum. But the problem of creating motivation for learning in the abstract still remains and the reply of the philosophers that such considerations are the province of the learning theorists is not likely to be of much cheer to hard-pressed teachers in the months that lie ahead. In the United States, faced with a very similar problem, the decision to promote 'career education' has been taken unashamedly by Washington and it would appear that the teachers have seen no reason to reject the curriculum implications. Teachers in this country would do well to observe the American experience as closely as possible and, to use a metaphor taken from the world of technology, to keep their lines open.

Correction

The footnote on page 16 of TRENDS IN EDUCATION No. 32 (October 1973) should read: 'This article is based on a study of examinations and history teaching written for a group of HMIs'.

Community development and the primary school

Can a new primary school play an appropriate part in community development, as secondary schools can? Here Mr. F. H. Pedley, formerly Chief Education Officer of the County Borough of Rochdale, describes one experiment that may help to provide the answer

Rochdale has established in the Belfield area (a housing estate which until recently was beginning to show signs of the drabness and deterioration that besets so many housing estates) a primary community school for children aged from four to 10 that will act as the focal point for all community interests. In Belfield the sole attractions used to be a pub and a post office, and its inhabitants who live only two miles from the centre of Rochdale, a relatively small town of just under 100,000 population, have no doctors' or dentists' surgeries they can attend within walking distance. The establishment of the school, which was done under the replacement programme promoted by the DES, has provided an opportunity to remedy a deep-seated problem and to offer to the residents of Belfield opportunities that do not exist elsewhere. The head of the community school has been designated as such (with an additional allowance beyond the normal Burnham scale) to emphasize his responsibility to the community at large which, in true Henry Morris fashion, incorporates the primary school but goes well beyond it. Although it has, unfortunately, not proved possible to provide a clinic on the site, there will be a pre-school play group for children aged up to three, and eventually a social services unit for some 10-15 children on a full-time basis, either for one-parent families or for mothers who find it difficult to cope with their children and who will come to the unit to be helped with their problems. From there the children will move to the nursery class of the school, where most of the places are on a part-time basis but with some full-time to cope with the problems already mentioned. The school incorporates a library which will also be the public library for the area and which will be open to the public during school hours as well as at other times. It is hoped that in this way many parents bringing their children to school will take the opportunity of visiting the library —a facility which would certainly not have been possible unless the dual use had been contemplated. Adjacent to the library is an Information and Study Centre where middle and upper school pupils, from homes where study is difficult, will be able to enjoy quietness and the use of reference books, together with the help of an understanding teacher whose job it will be to act as a good parent would, not by helping a child to do his homework, but to help him to overcome difficulties and thus to promote his educational development. The Centre will also be available to residents of the area during the daytime. One immediate use to which it will be put will be for tuition in reading and writing for adults.

In a different wing of the building will be community facilities that will incorporate provision for young people, and a hall where old people may have meals at mid-day and enjoy frequent contact with their fellows.

The government of the community school has now been finally determined, and the intention is to ensure that there is, in addition to the small legal body of managers, a much more broadly based Community Coun-

cil which will be representative of all the members of the staff of the school (teaching, caretaking, meals and non-teaching assistants); the organizations using the school; the parents; representatives of activity groups not forming part of organizations and one representative for every 100 houses in the area. There will also be a community worker whose job it will be, under the head teacher's direction, to promote activities for the community at large both during and out of school hours. It is hoped that in this way there will be a thorough grass-roots representation of all the people on the estate and that they will rapidly come to appreciate that this is their school and that it is effectively under their control. This need in no way affect the professional approach of the teaching staff, who will naturally regard the community as the focal point of all their activities and welcome them within the curtilage of the school as equals.

The education of adults in the latter part of the twentieth century must rest surely on their involvement with others in the creation of an environment which is pleasant to live in and where every individual will have his place. Put simply, this is an attempt to recreate the village community and most (though not all) of what it implied. If Belfield and other similar projects are successful, we can look forward to a flexible and broad-based approach to adult education.

Among the wide range of D.E.S. publications which will be of interest to those concerned with education are:

EDUCATION PAPERBACKS (intended mainly for parents but of use to teachers and others).

Inside the Primary School by John Blackie, formerly Chief Inspector of Primary Schools. Price 28p, by post 33½p (1967).

Inside the Colleges of Further Education by Adrian Bristow, the Advisory Centre for Education. Price 30p, by post 37p (1970).

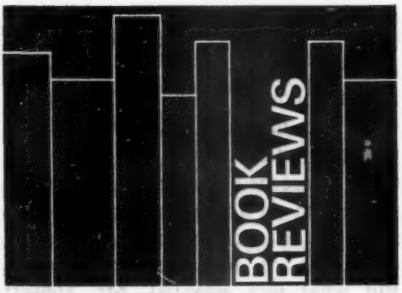
Inside the Colleges of Further Education by Adrian Bristow, Principal of Chester College of F.E. Price 30p, by post 36p (1971).

EDUCATION SURVEYS—carried out by H.M. Inspectors of Schools. The two most recent are:

Careers Education in Secondary Schools. Education Survey 18. Price 68p, by post 73½p.

Aspects of Special Education: Schools for Delicate Children. Special Classes in Ordinary Schools. Education Survey 17. Price 29p, by post 33p.

These publications are available from H.M.S.O., PO Box 569, London SE1 9NH, or from any bookseller.



Success and failure in the secondary school

Olive Banks and Douglas Finlayson
Methuen £3·50 (£1·75 in paperback)

At first glance the title has the sort of immediate appeal which stimulates a high level of expectation, but the authors quickly remind us that their investigation is really about 'over achievement' and 'under achievement'. The book in fact describes a research project started in 1964 using the first-year intake of boys into a traditional grammar school, a technical grammar school and a mixed comprehensive school, all of which were situated in a northern industrial town. Only those boys starting in the academic band of the comprehensive school were studied. Using the 11+ scores and subsequent performance in the school internal examinations, groups of pupils were selected for their later divergence from what might have been their predicted performance. The research continued until the children reached their fifth year.

The authors were anxious to exploit an interdisciplinary approach to their work by combining the research procedures of the sociologist and the psychologist. The techniques used involved extensive parental interviews and the application of numerous questionnaires to parents, pupils and teachers. Pupils were studied to obtain measures of introversion, neuroticism, dependence, conformity, intellectual curiosity, orientation, motivation, aspiration and expectation. The interviews with parents made possible some analysis of child-rearing patterns, socio-economic status, educational and cultural backgrounds as well as aspirations and expectations for their child. As it happened the parents proved to be a remarkably homogeneous group; few had experience of sixth form education, there was little sign of poverty but also little indication that any of the parents could be described as traditional middle-class.

Each chapter usually contains a summary of earlier research work in the field and, in some instances, tests and questionnaires used by their predecessors have been adapted to fit this project. Clearly the authors set themselves an immense task and the text makes several references to their need to trim their activities. This was particularly the case when it came to the investigation of the influence of the schools themselves. By tracing the fortunes of a group of boys of comparable ability, progress in the three schools was compared. It was interesting to see confirmation of the success of the comprehensive school with boys who might have otherwise done less well in the lowest stream of a selective school.

Inevitably in an investigation like this there are many findings that have to be qualified by the nature of the circumstances, and both Professor Banks and Dr. Finlayson frequently draw attention to these limitations. Nevertheless, readers will find confirmation of many of their hypotheses about pupils in similar situations to those described, as well as some possible surprises — for example, the potential influence of the school in providing parents with the stimulus for promoting encouragement in the home. In the context of the current debate on inequality and of the rôle of the school, there does seem to be some evidence here that, at least for one group of children, the influence of the school may be crucial. However, the main justification for this book is probably not in the conclusions but, as the authors claim, in the virtues of a

detailed case-study approach. It is heartening to read that 'statistical criteria which emphasize the importance of large samples drawn from many different kinds of school have given rise to conclusions which, at the level of individual schools, can be seriously misleading'.

E.L.S.

In-service training: structure and content

Roger Watkins (editor)

Ward, Lock Educational £1·35

These papers all originate in a conference held in Leeds in 1972. Though there was undoubtedly too high a proportion of feed-in at the conference itself, it is most useful to have the papers for more leisured consideration, and we should be grateful to Roger Watkins for making this possible. All the papers are sharply focused on different aspects of the organization and content of in-service training; all are convinced of its value.

Different aspects of the problems of increasing the quantity and improving the quality of in-service training were discussed by the General Secretary of NUT, the Secretary of ATCDE, a CEO, five university teachers concerned with in-service training, a deputy principal of a college of education, a deputy director of a polytechnic and a joint secretary from the Schools Council.

Among the many interesting points made, the following stand out. The first group is concerned with planning. Mr. Britton emphasized the need for long-term planning on the part of LEAs, especially for teacher replacement, if teachers were to take up the offers of longer courses. Mr. Taylor made a plea for more direct and explicit involvement of local authorities in the administration and finance of in-service education. Mr. Hewett was anxious that local authorities should not be 'the sole voice assessing the needs of their employees', nor yet the major providers of in-service education. 'It would be unfortunate in the extreme if control of the curriculum and methods of teaching moved away from the individual schools and the teachers within them'. Mr. Cane was most concerned that teachers should participate in the planning of provision, but was aware of the practical difficulties of recurrent consultation. But what was essential, Mr. Hewett said, was to set up an administrative structure 'which will bring into responsible and genuine partnership all those with a legitimate interest in the in-service training of teachers'.

The next group of comments concerns the teachers themselves. Professor Hoyle felt it important that teachers should go beyond a high level of classroom competence and good relationship with pupils, to an extended professionalism in which the teacher saw his work in the wider context of community and society, ensured that it was informed by theory, research and current good practice, and was himself ready to collaborate with other teachers. Such a teacher would find it easy, as Dr. Rudd described, to 'throw off the (perceived) weight of imposed authority' and say 'We want to do it our way. Let us experiment for ourselves'. Active curriculum development was one of the best methods of in-service education, and enabled teachers to help their own pupils to work responsibly and independently. Mr. Britton's chief concern was to protect teachers: 'The teacher himself should have considerable rights in the choice of the course he attends'. Nor should the teacher be made to attend a course which entailed residence away from home.

Other speakers stressed the contributions that could and should be made by different types of educational institution. Mr. Watkins said that 'schools need to develop a considered plan for innovation and a corresponding strategy for the in-service education of appropriate staff'. The implementa-

tion of important innovations had to be based on team-work within the school. For professional centres, Dr. Rudd provides, on p. 122, a useful list of the necessary conditions under which innovatory working parties can flourish—too long to quote here, but well worth consulting. As for colleges of education, Mr. Hewett hoped they would all become professional centres, providing support, resources, and courses, mediating educational research, disseminating curriculum development projects—and in addition giving special care to probationers. He pointed out that colleges undertaking a considerable amount of in-service training would need a better staffing ratio, not least because of the additional burdens of administration and assessment.

Dr. Robinson stressed that polytechnics were already providing in a large way for teachers, who joined with others in part-time courses. Many of their needs overlapped with those of other professions. Polytechnics were more concerned to provide employee-oriented courses than employer-oriented ones—i.e. they were helping teachers 'to get better jobs or get out of the profession' rather than helping them to do their jobs better. He would like to see polytechnics making an even larger contribution.

Mr. Mattock categorized the many kinds of provision already made by universities for serving teachers, ranging from sustained courses concerned with subject enrichment, educational theory, or the curriculum, to one-day inspirational meetings on recent research findings and curriculum development.

This selection does not do justice to the lively and cogent impact of the book as a whole, but I must end with Lord James's warning, even more pertinent now:

'What we must beware of is the kind of attitude that foresees the difficulties and uses them as an excuse for doing nothing'. K.M.B.

Counselling in colleges of education
David Warwick (editor)
University of Lancaster £0·70

This booklet brings together papers given at a Lancaster School of Education conference. For the most part the papers concentrate upon personal counselling directed towards increasing the student's self-understanding and thereby his capacity to deal constructively with some testing situations occasioned or heightened by his life at college. In this connexion there are some perceptive comments about meeting new strains or unresolved problems in the field of family or sexual relationships and coming to terms with the demands of academic work or teaching practice.

Three contributors describe the counselling service provided in their colleges; in one case through a counselling team involving 14 members of staff and in the other two by designated counsellors. On this evidence the traditional concern of colleges of education for the total wellbeing of students is alive and well, and the introduction of more systematic or specialized arrangements for its expression supports rather than undermines the work of the personal tutor. These accounts and other papers on theories of counselling, the counsellor's role, and the development of counselling skills, are united by the healthy eclecticism in method combined with acceptance of the 'client-centred' orientation of Carl Rogers as a basic stance which has also characterized counselling in schools in this country'.

Colleges which are reconsidering their counselling provision will find some useful material here, not least in the paper by the General Secretary of the ATCDE. Looking to the diversified institutions of the future, Stanley Hewett sets out clearly the need for adding to personal counselling those educational and vocational guidance elements in the trinity of counselling virtues which have hitherto been less well developed in colleges of education.

Empathy and insight are indispensable qualities in counselling, but for institutions with much more complex course structures and leading to a greater array of career possibilities they are not enough. E.L.

School organisation and pupil involvement: a study of secondary schools

Ronald King

Routledge and Kegan Paul £3·50

'Unlike sex or age, social class is not easily operationalised as a categoric statistic. In this study the dichotomous classification . . . ' (page 23). Unlike Dan Chaucer, the educational sociologist can hardly be described as a 'well of English undefiled', but the reader who does not allow himself to be deterred either by the occasional turbidity of the language or the formidable array of tables of statistics (appendix C alone contains 46 pages of them) will find much of interest and illumination in this very thorough study, based on an analysis of over 1,000 items of data derived from questionnaires and observation in each of 72 schools. The idea that high pupil involvement is desirable is associated, as the author points out, with a relatively new attitude towards pupils. If it is accepted as valid, then the findings of such research as this are significant for future educational planning.

The range of variables taken into account by the researchers means that a vast number of interrelationships could be studied. Differences among pupils in social class, sex, age and ability; differences between schools in status, sex or social class composition, size, material provision (some 85 variables in all); differences in organization both in the expressive field (that broadly concerned with behaviour and ethos) and the instrumental (that concerned with the skills and knowledge) some 130 such 'structural' variables were isolated.

The results are a warning against facile generalization — middle-class pupils are not necessarily more involved than working-class children, girls than boys, abler than less able—even the drop of involvement that many schoolmasters have observed between the ages of 12 and 14 is more characteristic of the grammar school than of the modern or comprehensive. Nor does pupils' involvement vary markedly according to a size, status or physical condition of a school. Patterns of pupil involvement do emerge, but they are more detailed patterns than can be summarized here.

An interesting concept used extensively in the study is that of 'ritualization' as one of four elements of school organization, along with standardization, formalization and specialization. Two elements of school 'ritual' turn out to show a markedly lower level of consensus between teacher and pupil than most—namely the school assembly and school uniform. The detailed rubrics which govern ritual of school assembly are illustrated by the following extract: 'Pupils enter the school hall supervised (93 per cent) by the prefects (12 per cent) or the teachers (82 per cent). They enter by age (60 per cent) and take up special positions for each age group (88 per cent). Within age groups they enter by their teaching group (43 per cent) and take up positions special to that group (53 per cent) . . . The teachers process in (7 per cent) or enter separately from the pupils (47 per cent) wearing gowns (15 per cent) and take up their position on the platform (29 per cent). They sit while the pupils stand (31 per cent). The head teacher enters separately from all others (83 per cent) wearing a gown (46 per cent) and carrying a Bible (7 per cent) . . . ' (page 52). A similar catalogue under the category of 'standardization' covers the pupils' arrival at school and use of the school buildings during the day (page 32).

The use of a term with wide connotations in the highly specialist way is dangerous, because some of the connotations may be disturbing or irrelevant to the specialist use, and the author does not seem to have entirely escaped this danger. Ritual suggests the word 'sacred' and we hear of rooms 'sacred to particular Houses' (page 66) and the suggestion that, like religious

authority, the school authority implied in the structure of assembly is 'hierarchical, immutable, omniscient, omnipresent and omnipotent'. This is one example of the subjectivity that can creep into this sort of analysis, the danger of which the author himself clearly recognizes and acknowledges (page 168).

The research itself was based on a regional sample of schools and this may well prove to limit its general validity, especially since the region not unnaturally selected by a team based on Exeter University was the south-west, perhaps an area not typical of the country as a whole. The proportion of different types of schools more or less reflects the national pattern for 1969, with comprehensive schools slightly over-represented. Nevertheless, the break-down of schools by size and sex composition results in very small numbers in some categories, and the danger of generalizing from too few examples—e.g. the statement on page 42 about girls' comprehensive schools turns out to be based on only two schools.

An erratum slip which, amongst other things, explains one corruption in the text which would otherwise have baffled the textual critic (page 53) is supplied by the publisher. I notice two other errors, 'possibly' for 'possible' (page 60) and 'table 136' for 'table 123' on page 165.

The lay-out of the text and the numerous tables of statistics make reference easy and there is a useful index. This is a valuable analysis of an important aspect of school organization.

B.W.K.

The study of education and art

Dick Field and John Newick (editors)

Routledge and Kegan Paul £3·80

The editors and the contributors to this book have given themselves a very difficult task. In the most general sense they aim, in different ways, to bring their experiences and special insights to examine the nature and purpose of art and the arts in general education. They make a strong plea for the arts as unique and important ways of 'knowing'. They equally believe that their essential nature is best understood by 'the adventurous acts of making' art. We are warned in the Foreword that the reader will have to make his own synthesis. He will find it also hazardous to relate the importance of some of the contributions to the many urgent problems that now pose themselves for the teacher active in the school studio or workshop. This is a serious book which brings philosophical, psychological and sociological viewpoints and other knowledge together in support of the study of the arts in education, and for this it can be commended.

D.A. B.-W.

Case studies of educational innovation
Vol. 1—At the central level
Vol. 2—At the regional level
Vol. 3—At the school level
Vol. 4—Strategies for innovation in education

OECD: Centre for Educational Research and Innovation

H.M. Stationery Office £2·00 each

'The theme of innovation in education is as sensitive as it is important', to quote from Ronald Gass's preface to these four volumes. Ambitiously the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation of OECD has attempted to evaluate 17 innovatory organizations in nine different countries, including Canada, the United States, Sweden and the United Kingdom. The studies are published in three groupings: central institutions for educational innovation; innovative regions; and innovative schools. The work was undertaken by 24 research workers under the general coordination of Per Dalin, Director of International Management Training for Educational Change (IMTEC, a branch of CERI) and author of the fourth volume, a commentary on the case studies analysing the processes of change in them.

Dalin distinguishes four categories of educational innovation: objectives and functions of the school in its broader social and economic context; organization and administration of the educational system; rôles and rôle relationships; and curriculum. Together with individual case studies, such as in Sweden the National Board of Education and the Malmo Region, these categories give insights into where the significant differences between national systems may lie. Such insights may be necessary before we can fully relate experience in other countries to our own situations. Dalin's synthesis is impressive and his framework for analysing the management of change could be a valuable tool, justified on the grounds that clear analysis of past experience highlights issues of significance in future planning and decision making. One would like to see its applicability tested in other and less 'exceptional' examples of educational change. But this is an important contribution to the study and understanding of educational management.

The clarity and detail of the case studies vary: several are descriptive essays rather than analyses capable of standing up to rigorous study. Studies of schools such as the Oslo Experimental Gymnasium, Thornlea School in Ontario and Countesthorpe College are informative and will whet the interests of many heads and administrators, but will leave many of their questions unanswered — especially about curriculum. Greater use of diagrams would have been helpful. Many readers will wish to know how the schools have developed since the studies were made over two years ago, in some instances at a particularly early stage of their life and before valid evaluation was possible. Nevertheless the studies describe real problems and raise questions which may become of growing significance in more typical schools.

Though not all manage to convey what makes the organism 'tick'—it is a pity the description of Malmo makes such heavy reading—the studies of five regions (including the Leicestershire and Devon LEAs) and seven central institutions will be of wide interest at a time of local and regional changes. They may point directions in which the reader might wish to make direct contacts. At their best, as in Frank Chase's account of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, they provide a valuable historical study as well as pinpointing strengths and weaknesses. Such a study is John Nisbet's of the Schools Council; this has caught much of the fact and spirit of the Council's early years and, although some judgments, for example of teachers' centres, may be premature, it is objective and should be widely read.

These are not four volumes to be read from cover to cover. They are a collection of 17 'books' plus a commentary, several of interest and some of importance. As such they deserve to be widely known and available.

W.G.H.